

Received: 09 October 2023 • Revised: 21 November 2023 • Accepted: 03 January 2024

Research

doi:10.22034/jcema.2024.436968.1131

Behavior OF Low-Carbon Rice Husk Ashin Cement Mortar Under Compressive Loading

Lawrence Zahemen Tuleun ^{1*}, Adeola A. Adedeji ²

¹ Department of Civil Engineering, University of Ilorin, Tanke road, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria.

² Prof. Adeola A. Adedeji (Senior Lecturer) Department of Civil Engineering, University of Ilorin, Tanke Road, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria.

*Correspondence should be addressed to L. Z. Tuleun, Department of Civil Engineering, University of Ilorin, Tanke road, Ilorin, Kwara state, Nigeria. Tel: (+234) 8134882685; Email:tuleun@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This study explores the impact of low carbon Rice Husk Ash (RHA) on the rheological and mechanical properties of mortar. RHA, sourced from Nigeria, underwent chemical analysis to ascertain its pozzolanic activity index. Rheological tests conducted on the mortar included standard consistency, initial and final setting times, as well as fresh density of mortar. While mechanical properties such as compressive, tensile, and flexural strength were assessed. Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) was partially substituted with RHA at varying intervals with 0% RHA serving as the control. Compressive strength was measured after 7, 14, and 28 days of water curing, while tensile and flexural strength were evaluated at the 28th day. The water-to-binder ratio was fixed at 4.85, and binder-to-fine aggregate ratios of 1:2.36 and 1:2.76 were employed. RHA was classified as Class N, indicating high pozzolanic capacity. Results revealed increased consistency, initial and final setting times and a decreased density with RHA addition. The peak compressive strength was observed at 10% RHA, reaching 8.759 and 10.252 MPa for mix ratios 1:2.75 and 1:2.36, respectively. Moreover, at 10% RHA, flexural and tensile strength for mix ratio 1:2.36 exceeded those of plain mortar by 22.5% and 9.6%, respectively. In conclusion, the study highlights the significant role of RHA as a pozzolanic material in enhancing cementitious reactions in mortar systems, though the influence of RHA particle size was not considered.

Keywords: Pozzolans, Compressive strength, Tensile strength, Mortar, Flowability

Copyright © 2024, Lawrence Tuleun. This is an open access paper distributed under the [Creative Commons Attribution License](#). *Journal of Civil Engineering and Materials Application* is published by ([ISNet](#)); Journal p-ISSN 2676-332X; Journal e-ISSN 2588-2880.

1. INTRODUON

Rice is a significant food in the global market space and the second most produced grain in the world. Corn, the largest grain, is produced

for various reasons as opposed to rice which is produced primarily for consumption. The leading region of the world which produces rice is Asia,

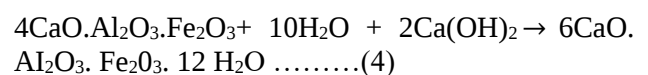
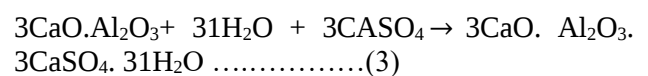
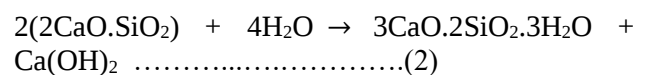
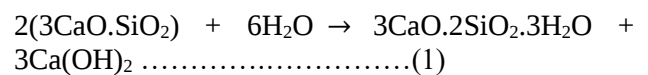
particularly South-East and East Asia; the reason for their dominance is because their regions are vastly tropical in nature. About 20% of rice paddy is made up of rice husks. The current global production of rice paddy is approximately 500 million tons, resulting in the production of 100 million tons of rice husks [1]. The current rice production rate globally stands at 700 million tons per year, with Africa accounting for about 18 %. China and India are the top producers of rice paddy. However, according to FAO report, Nigeria is the largest producer of rice in Africa.

Rice husk is a byproduct obtained from the milling of rice grains. It is also the outer covering of the rice grain. Rice husks, being organic in nature contains approximately 40 % Cellulose, 30 % Lignin and 20 % Silica. Rice husk can absorb water ranging from 5 % to 16 %. It is responsible for approximately 30 % of the overall weight of a rice grain. Bulk density is low and lies within the range of 90 -150 Kg/m³. After removing the husk during the milling process of rice grains, what remains is typically the rice grain with a thin brown layer. Upon further milling, the brown layer is removed resulting in palatable white rice. The Rice husk when incinerated results to rice husk ash (RHA).

RHA is pozzolanic in nature due to the presence of silica and its fine particle size. The degree of pozzolanic activity of husk ash depends on the silica content and fineness of the material. Calcination Temperature also plays a role in achieving a high pozzolanic activity, as Jimoh et al. [2] recommend a temperature between 700 -800 °C for optimal reaction of the RHA with lime (Ca (OH)₂). When rice husk is calcined at a controlled temperature of 500-800°C until total combustion, the resulting ash exhibits a whitish and fine appearance, indicative of its physical transformation. At this temperature range, the rice husk ash (RHA) becomes non-crystalline and low in carbon content. Research indicates that this type of ash has a significantly positive pozzolanic effect in concrete, unlike low-carbon concrete [3-5]. In contrast, when the calcination temperature is low, a significant amount of un-calcined and high-carbon ash is formed. This is often associated with open-field burning of the rice husk ash. According to ASTM C618 [6], it specifies that the loss on ignition (LOI), which includes both carbon and other volatile materials, for Class N pozzolans (which include RHA) should

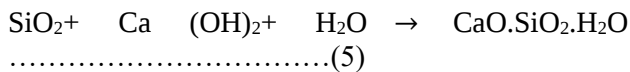
not exceed 5%. Indian Standard IS 1727:1967 [7] - Specification for Burnt Clay Pozzolana: This standard specifies that the total carbon content in burnt clay pozzolana (including RHA) should not exceed 5%. Habeeb and Mahmud [3] and Bakar et al. [8] also classified RHA with a carbon content below 5% as a low carbon ash. Additional benefits include the usage of the RHA as a biomass fuel. The silica is also used economically as a substitute for micro silica fume/silica fumes in concrete production. Additionally, it serves as absorbents for oil and chemicals, a source of silicon, insulation powder in steel mills, repellent in the form of 'vinegar tar,' release agent in the ceramic industry, insulation material for homes and refrigerants, and as soil ameliorants.

A pozzolanic reaction occurs when a Siliceous or an aluminous material comes in contact with calcium hydroxide (Ca (OH)₂) or lime in the presence of water to form calcium silicate hydrate (C-S-H) which is cementitious in nature [9]. The C-S-H is released in the form of tri-calcium silicate (C₃S) and di-calcium silicate (C₂S). Other components that are released during the wetting process include calcium hydroxide (Ca (OH)₂), C₃A and C₄AF as indicated in equation 1. The C, S, A and F represents CaO, SiO₂, Al₂O₃ and C₄AF [10].

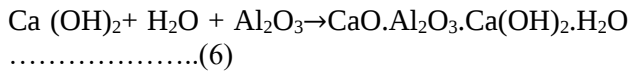


The C-S-H gel, a reaction outputs in equation 1 and 2 is responsible for the bonding of the constituent materials. Calcium hydroxide and Ettringite (3CaO.3CaSO₄.31H₂O, equation 3) mainly consist of hydrated crystalline products that are randomly distributed and form the frame of the gel product. As indicated in equation 4, the C₄AF further reacts with Ca (OH)₂ resulting in the formation of additional gel products. Excess Ca (OH)₂ is also counterproductive to the area of durability performance of concrete [11].

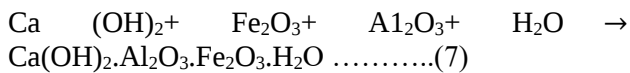
Tobermorite gel:



Calcium aluminate hydrate:



Calcium aluminate ferrite hydrate:



This crystalline cementitious gel (C-S-H & C-A-H) hardens with time under various curing conditions thus resulting in formation of a denser cement paste [12]. Research conducted by Alireza et al. [10] show that the pozzolanic effect on mortars is observed during the later stages. Hence, a delay in the reaction at the early-stage results in a more porous and permeable concrete. However, the heat generated during hydration, which causes intrinsic thermal shrinkage in high and ultra-high strength mortars, is reduced with the inclusion of pozzolana. Also, at its initial stage of reaction, it acts as a precipitation site for the early formation of C-S-H and C-H.

From data collated by researchers, the amount of CH reduces in mortar paste after 3 days and reaches a zero percent at 90 days when combined with 30% RHA. Whereas, in the case of the reference paste, it increases with hydration time [10]. The inclusion of pozzolana decreases the quantity of CH and increases the amount of C-S-H formed. The formation of C-S-H produces a durable concrete of improved strength and density. The degree of its performance in concrete depends on the state of the ash (either crystalline or amorphous). Reports by Habeeb & Fayyadh [13] and Lin et al. [14] indicated better performance of amorphous ash in the presence of lime compared with crystalline ash. Approximately 85 to 95 % by weight of amorphous silica are produced when 1kg of RHA ash is burnt at a controlled temperature of 700 -800 °C [15]. The degree of the reaction with lime is also dependent on the specific surface area of the RHA. The finer the particle size, the better the performance in concrete [16], [10]. Feng et al. [17] attributed an increase in the early hydration of mortar to the specific surface area of RHA. However, the particle size of pozzolanas is less reactive than cement, they

produce a large number of nucleation sites for the precipitation of the hydration products by dispersing in cement pastes; this creates a denser and a more homogenous paste [18]. Berry et al. [19] also documented that non-reactive pozzolana can act as void fillers in concrete. Cabrera & Rojas [20] observed that the pattern of pozzolanic reaction can be analyzed using the Jander diffusion equation based on Fick's parabolic law of diffusion assuming a spherical particle interface.

Mayooran, et al. [21] compared the use of open air burned low- and high - carbon rice husk ash as partial cement replacement in cement block production. Their findings revealed that cement blocks partially replaced with low-carbon RHA performed slightly better mechanically compared to those with high-carbon RHA. However, both were considered suitable for use in non-load-bearing masonry wall construction. Regarding density performance, both low- and high-carbon RHA resulted in a decrease when added to the cement. Water absorption was higher in high-carbon RHA cement blocks compared to those with low carbon. However, an overall increase in water absorption was noticed with RHA for both low- and high-carbon varieties. Mayooran et al. [21] investigated the impact of ground low-carbon rice husk on the microstructure and performance of concrete. They found that substituting 10% of cement with rice husk resulted in concrete with a peak compressive strength 15.6% higher than that of cement concrete without rice husk. This finding is consistent with the results reported by Tuleun et al. [22] regarding similar materials in concrete.

In addition to its use in mortar and concrete production, research has explored the potential of rice husk ash (RHA) for other construction purposes, including road soil stabilization. Ghavami et al. [23] examined the strength behavior of weak clayey soils when stabilized with a blend of RHA and cement. They found that the maximum unconfined compressive strength was achieved with a 10% inclusion of RHA, after which a decrease in strength was observed. A similar trend was observed in the California Bearing Ratio (CBR) test results. However, a study conducted by Barwar et al. [24] revealed that the maximum strength was attained at a 9% RHA replacement level.

Sanou et al. [25] investigated the mechanical behavior of mortars modified with rice husk ash, focusing on materials characterization (XRD pattern analysis and SEM analysis) and mechanical performance of the RHA cementitious mortars, particularly compressive and flexural strengths, over a 28-day curing period. Selvaranjan et al. [26] conducted similar research, focusing on material characterization, compressive strength, thermal conductivity, water absorption, density, porosity, and workability performance of cement mortar with RHA, with a specific curing age of 28 days. Jamil et al. [27] omitted the experimental investigation of the physical and chemical effects of RHA on the fresh properties of mortar, focusing instead on the microstructural characterization and compressive strength of RHA mortars. Danso H. [28] also conducted research on the mechanical behavior of rice husk ash (RHA) in mortars, without emphasizing the adopted calcination process. Although the researcher focused on the compressive and tensile characteristics of RHA-mortar at 7, 14, and 28 days, there was no analysis regarding the rheological and stress-strain behavior of RHA-mortar at various curing ages. Zakaria et al. [29] also investigated the workability and compressive strength behavior of cement mortar when incorporating RHA. However, their study focused solely on the workability and compressive strength of the mortars.

Our intended research aims to address gaps identified in the aforementioned works by investigating the mechanical behavior of RHA mortars at varying curing ages of 7, 14, and 28 days. This investigation seeks to understand the pattern of strength development and include an examination of tensile behavior. Based on their research, no investigation was conducted on the fresh property (Atterberg limit) behavior, which is an important parameter in concrete works. This research aims to bridge that gap by delving into the rheology of mortar systems embedded with RHA at varying percentages. Further research will also be conducted to understand the stress-strain behavior of the specimens incorporated with RHA.

The use of rice husk ash is known to have cementitious potential, primarily due to its high percentage of silica oxide when properly prepared. This silica oxide component enhances reaction in lime solution resulting to an improvement in strength and durability performance. Hence, there is a need to investigate the possibility of partially replacing cement mortar with RHA with the aim of achieving a more sustainable and eco-friendlier composite. Little research has been conducted on the use of rice husk ash calcined at a controlled temperature as pozzolana and filler in mortar production.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Materials

Dangote's Ordinary Portland cement (42.5R) conforming to ASTM C150 [30] and rice husk ash were used as cementitious binders in the research program. The rice husk was obtained from a rice mill in Oja Gboro Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria. The collected rice husk was then converted into an amorphous ash by virtue of calcination of the husk in a furnace at a controlled temperature of 600°C for 6 hours; this process was carried out at the Institute of Technology (IOT) Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria. The RHA sample was then sieved through a 75µm

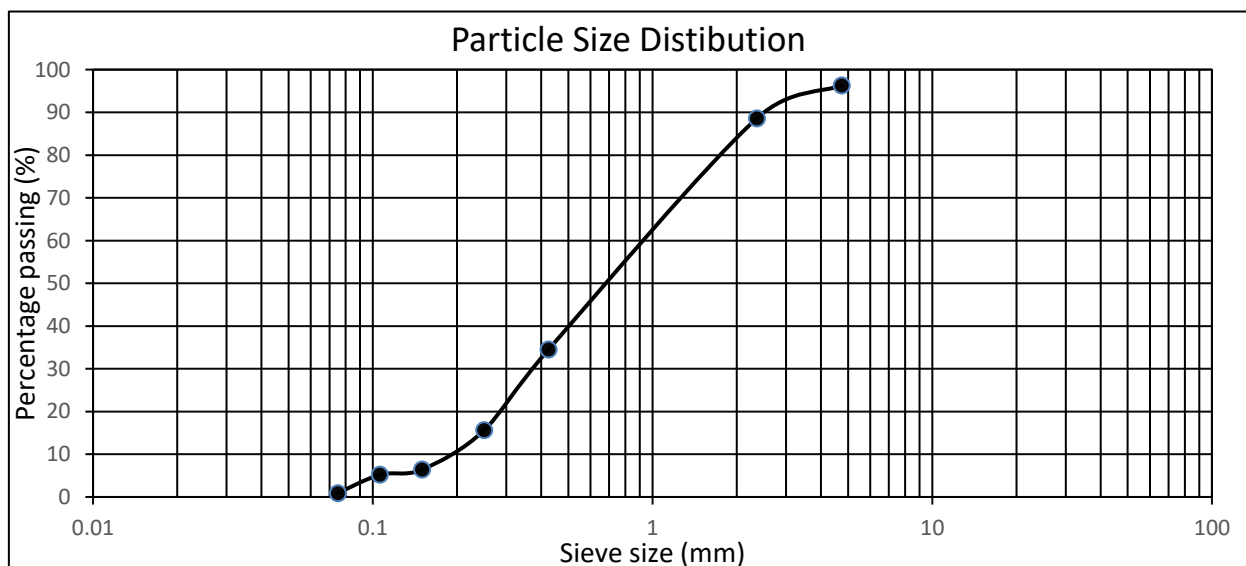
sieve to remove the coarse particles. The finer particles that passed through were used as an input parameter in the research work. The whitish RHA sample had a specific gravity of 2.08, fineness ($\leq 75\mu\text{m}$) of 89%, density of 464.6 Kg/m³, and specific surface area of 35.98 m²/g. The chemical properties of rice husk ash and its pozzolanic activity index class are presented in Table 1. Also, from Table 1, the RHA falls within class N of the index, indicating its high pozzolanic potential in combination with Lime (Ca(OH)₂).

Table 1. Chemical properties and pozzolanic activity index class of RHA

Chemical properties of RHA										
Elemental	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	CaO	Fe ₂ O ₃	MgO	Na ₂ O	SO ₃	K ₂ O	LOI	Ash
RHA	69.43	0.83	0.58	0.62	0.87	0.84	7.82	7.51	1.4	5.61
Chemical pozzolanic			Class C		Class N	Class	Rice husk ash (RHA)			
SiO ₂ + AlO ₃ + Fe ₂ O ₃ (%)			≥ 50		≥ 70	≥ 70	70.82			
SO ₃			≤ 4		≤ 5	≤ 5	7.82			
MgO			≤ 5		≤ 5	≤ 5	0.87			
Loss of Ignition			≤ 6		≤ 10	≤ 2	1.4			
Na ₂ O			≤ 1.5		≤ 1.5	≤ 1.5	0.84			

Local river sand was used as a non-reactive fine filler material in the mix. As shown in [Figure 1](#), the particle size distribution of fine aggregate was mainly between the 0-4mm sizes. The gradation of the fine aggregate was found suitable for all mixes since the fineness modulus is 4.525 (coarser), coefficient of uniformity Cu is 16.55 which is greater than 5, and the coefficient of curvature is 2.5 greater than 1 but less than 3 as stated in ASTM D6913 [\[31\]](#). Therefore, the fine aggregate is classified

as well graded fine sand. The fine aggregate also had an average silt content of 2.6 % which is less than 6% as prescribed in ASTM D4189 [\[32\]](#); thus, the fine aggregate is suitable for all mix proportions. The relative density of the aggregates in oven dried and saturated-surface dried (SSD) states were 2.20 and 2.48; while its bulk density, void content and volume of measure were 1403.3 Kg/m³, 36.21 % and 0.003 m³ respectively.

**Figure1.** Particle size distribution of fine (local river sand) aggregate

2.2. Mix proportion and curing

OPC was partially replaced with the pozzolanic RHA at varying intervals of 10, 20, 30 and 40 % by weight of OPC. OPC cementitious binders without RHA were used as the control. The water to binder

ratio was set at 0.485. Binders-to-sand ratios of 1:2.75 and 1:2.36 were also adopted. Conplast SP(Polycarboxylate based ether) was used to enhance the flowability of the mix within a range of 100 –

115 %. The produced specimens were initially covered with damp proof membrane for 24 hours; after which, they were demoulded and cured in water at the various testing ages (7,14,28 days). The

mortar mix proportions for the two binders-to-sand ratios of 1:2.75 and 1:2.36 are presented in [Table 2](#) and 3, respectively.

Table 2. Mix proportion of the mortar containing RHA (1:2.75).

Percentage replacement (%)	Weight of water (g)	Weight of cement (g)	Weight of RHA (g)	Weight of sand (g)	SP (%)
0RHA	363.8	750	-	2063	1.2
10RHA	363.8	675	75	2063	2.0
20RHA	363.8	600	150	2063	3.6
30RHA	363.8	525	225	2063	4.2
40RHA	363.8	450	300	2063	5.1

Binder-to-sand ratio, 1:2.75; water-to-binder, 0.485.

Table 3. Mix proportion of the mortar containing RHA (1:2.36)

Percentage replacement (%)	Weight of water (g)	Weight of cement (g)	Weight of RHA (g)	Weight of sand (g)	SP (%)
0RHA	363.8	750	-	1770	0.9
10RHA	363.8	675	75	1770	1.6
20RHA	363.8	600	150	1770	3.5
30RHA	363.8	525	225	1770	3.9
40RHA	363.8	450	300	1770	4.6

Binder-to-sand ratio, 1:2.36; water-to-binder, 0.485.

2.3. Test for rheological properties of mortar (Consistency, initial and final setting time)

The rheological properties of the cementitious mortar depend on the water requirement and flowability of the paste, which in turn determines the harden behavior of the paste at its latter stage. The degree of dispersion of the cement in water is also a key parameter in terms of the fresh and hardened performance of the paste. Hence, it imperative to study the water requirement and setting time (initial and final) behavior of cementitious paste when incorporated with RHA (at 10, 20, 30 and 40 % replacement levels). The Normal consistency of cement represents the percentage of water by weight of cement, which allows a plunger of 10 mm diameter to penetrate up to a depth of 5 mm to 7 mm

above the bottom of a vicat mould. The outcome indicates the consistency limit of mortar.

For the Initial setting time of cement mortar, it is the period elapsing between the time when the water is added to cement and the time at which needle of 1 mm² section fails to pierce the test block to a depth range of 33-55 mm from the top of the mould. The final setting time is the period elapsing between the times when the water is added to the cement and the time at which the needle makes an impression on the paste while not causing the attachment to make an impression. Furthermore, the tests for consistency and the setting time (both initial and final) conformed to ASTM C187 [\[33\]](#) and ASTM C191 [\[34\]](#), respectively.

2.4. Fresh density (unit weight), yield, and air content (gravimetric) of fresh mortar

The scope of this test is to determine the fresh density, yield and air content of the control mix (without RHA) and binary mix at various percentages (10%, 20%, 30% and 40%RHA added to cement). The essence is to compare the densities

with that of the control to determine whether lightweight mortar can be achieved. The test procedure was carried out in accordance with ASTM C138 [\[35\]](#).

2.4.1. Calculation

a) Density (unit weight):

The net mass of the mortar was calculated in kilograms by subtracting the mass of the measure, M_m , from the mass of the measure filled with mortar, M_c . Calculate the density, D , kg/m^3 , by dividing the net mass of mortar by the volume of the measure, V_m as follows:

$$D = (M_c - M_m)/V_m \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

b) Theoretical density:

Theoretical density was calculated as follows:

$$T = M/V \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

c) Yield: was calculated as follows:

$$Y(\text{m}^3) = M/D \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

d) Air Content – was calculated as follows:

$$A = [(Y - V)/Y] \times 100$$

Where:

D = density (unit weight) of mortar, kg/m^3 ,

M_c = mass of the measure filled with mortar, kg,

M_m = mass of the measure, kg,

V_m = volume of the measure, m^3 ,

T = theoretical density of the mortar computed on an air free basis, kg/m^3 ,

M = total mass of all materials batched, kg,

V = total absolute volume of the component ingredients in the batch, m^3 ,

Y = yield, volume of mortar produced per batch, m^3 , A = air content (percentage of voids) in the mortar.

2.5. Test for mechanical properties of Mortar

2.5.1. Compressive strength

In this test, cubes specimens of sizes $50 \times 50 \times 50$ mm (Length $\times$ Height $\times$ Thickness) were produced and measured for compressive strength. Four cube specimens were cast for each cement replacement percentage with RHA to maintain uniformity among them. They were then tested in a universal testing

machine (UTM) at curing ages of 7, 14 and 28 days respectively. The loading rate of the machine was set at 0.001 m/s. The test procedure was conducted in accordance with ASTM C39/C39M [36]. The average result of the 4 specimens was computed and documented.

2.5.2. Flexural strength

This test method was used to determine the flexural strength behavior of prepared beam specimens. The specimens of dimensions (length= 175 mm, width = 50 mm and thickness = 50mm) were produced using a mix ratio of 1:2.36. Prior to testing, the specimens were cured in water for a period of 28 days. The testing procedure conformed to C31/C31M [37].

Variations in specimen size, mode, compaction consistency, moisture condition, curing method, or whether the beam has been molded or sawed to size may result in varying flexural strength results. The setup of flexural strength testing is presented in Figure 2.

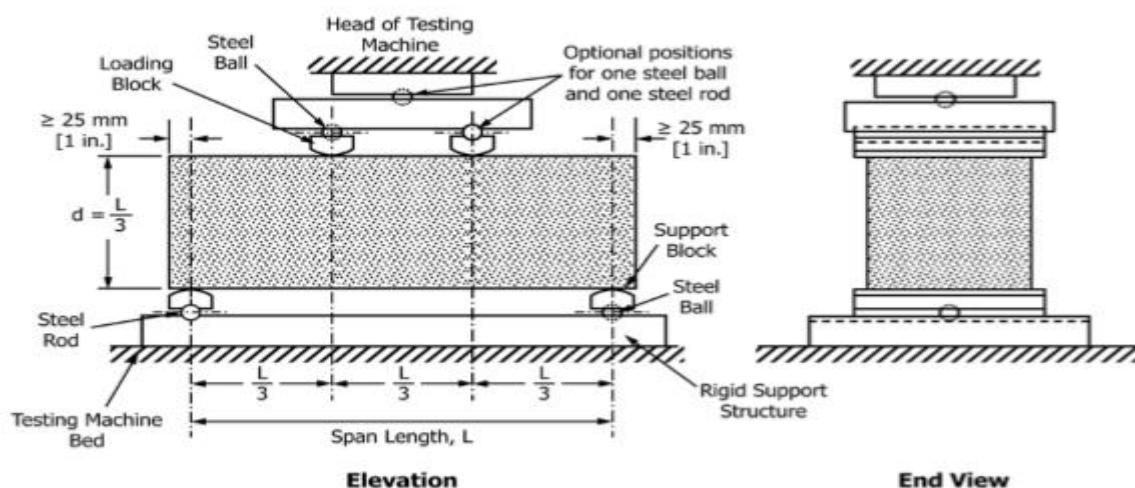


Figure 2. Set up of flexural beam in the testing machine.

2.5.3. Splitting tensile strength

This test was conducted in accordance with ASTM C496 [38]. In this research, 50 mm × 150 mm cylindrical specimens were prepared using a mix ratio of 1:2.36. The specimens were moist cured for the first 7 days followed by 21 days drying at 23°C and 50% relative humidity. At the 28th day, the specimen was placed in UTM and tested for its splitting tensile strength. The load was continuously applied without shock, at a constant rate of 1.4 MPa/min until failure was observed in the specimen. The maximum applied load indicated by the testing

machine at failure was recorded and the strength computed. The computation of the splitting tensile strength of the specimen is as follows:

$$T = 2P/\pi ld \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where: T = splitting tensile strength, MPa, P = maximum applied load indicated by the testing machine, N, l = length, mm, and d = diameter, mm. The setup of split tensile strength is shown in [Figure 3](#).

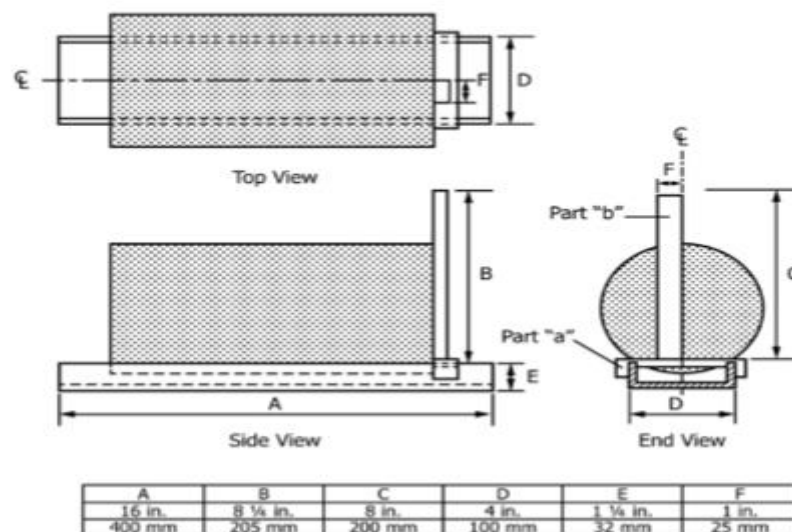


Figure 3. Set up of tensile strength of cylindrical specimens in the testing machine

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Standard consistency

[Table 2](#) presents the results of standard consistency, initial and final setting time of cement paste when blended with RHA at the various percentages. From the results, it was noticed that the consistency of the mix increased linearly when the cement was partially substituted with RHA. This implies that more SP was added to mix with addition of RHA to achieve a consistent mix conforming to ASTM standard. The disparity in results between OPC and RHA addition can be attributed to the lower specific gravity and higher specific surface area of RHA compared to OPC. The specific gravity and specific surface area of RHA used in this research work were 2.08 and 35.98 m²/g respectively. As RHA is porous and finer in nature, it will require a higher volume of SP to enhance intrinsic flocculation and further enhance the desired flow ability in the mix.

Furthermore, Kartini et al. [39] and Le [40] suggested that the adsorptive properties of cellular RHA particles, combined with their fine texture, result in an increased specific surface area, thus requiring a higher superplasticizer. Interestingly, the consistency results obtained align with findings from several researchers regarding the use of similar pozzolanic materials. Regarding the findings recorded by Rao [41] on the use of SF in mortar, they observed a 40% increase in the water requirement when cement was partially substituted with 20 -30 % SF. The control mix consisted of cement mortar without SF. Qing et al. [42] studied the effect of nano silica in mortar, and their outcome revealed higher consistency values for nanosilica mortars in comparison with reference mortars (100 % cement). Khan et al. [43] investigated the

influence of micro silica extracted from RHA. The outcome of their investigation also coincided with the findings by the aforementioned researchers. However, they attributed the outcome of the results to positioning of the finer particles of the RHA in the empty spaces of the cementitious matrix. This

leads to the closure of the flow channels in the mix, especially when high volumes of supplements are used. They also recommended that either more water or SP be used to maintain the standard consistency of the mix.

3.2. Initial and final setting time

Figure 4 shows the pattern of setting time behavior of mortars incorporated with RHA at various percentages. From figure 4, it was observed that there was an increase in initial and final setting time with the inclusion of the various percentages of RHA. The initial and final setting of cement mortar when replaced with 10 % RHA was 6.6 hrs, which is lower compared to the reference sample. However, at 20 and 30 % replacement, the setting times (initial and final) increased significantly by 14.6 and 26 hrs, respectively. For similar findings documented by Khan et al. [43], they explained that larger volume of RHA contains SiO_2 that are dormant during its initial phase of cementitious reaction. This invariably means that as the cement is replaced with the various percentages (20 & 30 %) of RHA, the rate of strength gain will reduce and setting time increase. Marthong [44] investigated the effect of RHA on the setting time mortar. The result of his investigation showed an increase in both setting times with increase in RHA content. He attributed the behavior of both the initial and final setting time to the low rate of hydration due to the

presence of the RHA. Alshamsi [45] reported an insignificant difference in the setting time of 10 % SF-OPC mortars, and a 6 – 20 % increment for 20 % SF-OPC mortars. Lohtia and Joshi [46] attributed the delay in setting time to the inclusion of SF without using water reducing admixtures in the mix. Other researchers such as Dabai et al. [47], Dakroury and Gasser [16], and Calica [48] also documented similar findings when agro pozzolanic materials were used. However, the work carried out by Rashid et al. [49] yielded a different outcome. Their peak results of initial and final setting time was attained at 15 % replacement with RHA. Beyond 15 %, a drop in setting time was observed. Their obvious reason for the contradiction in results may have been due to the open burning of the ash at an uncontrolled temperature, resulting in the formation of a crystalline RHA ash content. However, there is little or no information available on the comparative influence of crystalline and amorphous RHA on the rheological behavior of RHA mortar.

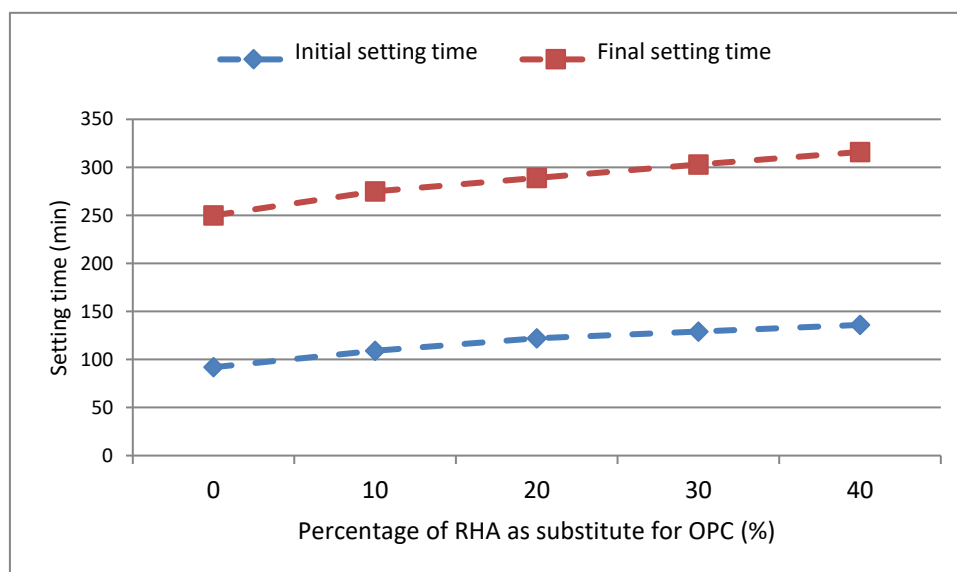


Figure 4. Initial and final setting time of RHA mortars systems

3.4. Fresh density (unit weight), yield, and air content (gravimetric) of fresh mortar

[Table 4](#) presents the results of fresh density of fresh mortar. The density of cement fresh mortar without RHA was higher than density of cement mortar blended with RHA. With increment in the quantity of RHA (at 0 %, 10 %, 20 %, 30 % and 40 %) in the mix (for ratio 1:2.75), there was a percentage reduction in density by 0.2, 0.61, 1.22 and 2.04 %, respectively. This was mainly attributed to the lower density of RHA compared to cement, along with the porous nature of RHA. As RHA partially replaced

cement, the resulting cementitious matrix became more porous and less dense. In contrast, for the mix with a ratio of 1:2.36, the observed percentage reductions were 0.12%, 0.61%, 1.45%, and 2.18%. Hence, the blended cement mortar shows a slight decrease in weight compared to the weight of the cement mortar. The decrease can be observed as the percentage of RHA increases from 0% to 40%. This indicates that mortar incorporated with RHA is lighter in weight when used in large quantity.

Table 4. Results of density of fresh RHA mortars (1:2.75 & 1:2.36)

% Binder RHA with cement	For ratio 1:2.75				For ratio 1:2.36			
	Density (Unit weight): kg/m ³	Percent reduction %	Theoretical Density: kg/m ³	Percent reduction %	Density (Unit weight): kg/m ³	Percent reduction %	Theoretical Density: kg/m ³	Percent reduction %
0%	1633.3	0.00	1648	0.00	1593.3	0.00	1628	0.00
10%	1630	0.20	1646	0.12	1590	0.20	1626	0.12
20%	1623.3	0.61	1638	0.61	1580	0.84	1618	0.61
30%	1613.3	1.22	1624	1.45	1573.3	1.26	1604	1.47
40%	1600	2.04	1612	2.18	1566.7	1.67	1592	2.21

3.5. Compressive strength

[Figure 5](#) shows the comparison of strength results of mix ratios 1:2.75 and 1:2.36 for OPC mortar and mortars containing the various percentages of RHA. The results showed that the inclusion of RHA resulted in a mortar with higher strength values compared to the reference (0 % RHA-OPC). The results were also higher at the various curing ages of 7, 14 and 28 days. With respect to mortars of mix ratio 1:2.75 at the 7th day curing period, the maximum strength was attained at 10 % OPC replacement with RHA. The maximum strength was insignificantly higher than the strength of plain mortar by 38.4 %. Beyond 10 % repl., a drop in strength was recorded. However, the strength recorded at 20 % repl. was insignificantly higher than the plain by 1.91 %, while the strength values at 30 and 40 % were lower. For mix ratio 1:2.36, the peak strength was also attained at 10 % repl., with a strength value been 43.5 % higher than the plain. The reason for the gain in strength can be attributed

to the fine filler effect of the RHA in the mix, thus resulting to a more improved mortar in terms of strength. The presence of silica content may also have had minimal effect on the strength development due to the fact that curing age also plays a significant role in activating the reactive potential of the silica in the Ca(OH)₂ to form Calcium Silicate Hydrate (C-S-H).

At the 14th day, the pattern of strength development coincided with that of the 7th day curing period. However, the peak strength recorded at 10 % was higher than that of the 7th day by 29.8 % and 28.1 % for both mix ratios (1:2.75 & 1:2.36). The result of peak strength was higher than that of plain mortar by 47.3 and 59.4 % respectively. The increase in strength can be attributed to the presence of amorphous SiO₂ in 10 % RHA-OPC mortar. According to previous studies by various researchers, the presence of the reactive amorphous SiO₂ in RHA is responsible for further improvement

in the strength performance of the mortar [50,51]. The lower strength results were obtained at 20 and 30 % for both mix ratios may be associated with pozzolanic inactiveness of the larger percentage of RHA. It may also have been possible that at these higher percentages (20 % of RHA), agglomeration

may have occurred in the matrix due to oversaturation and improper dispersion of RHA. This can lead to a reduction in hydration and the formation of a porous gel structures, thus affecting negatively the strength behavior of the mortar matrix [52].

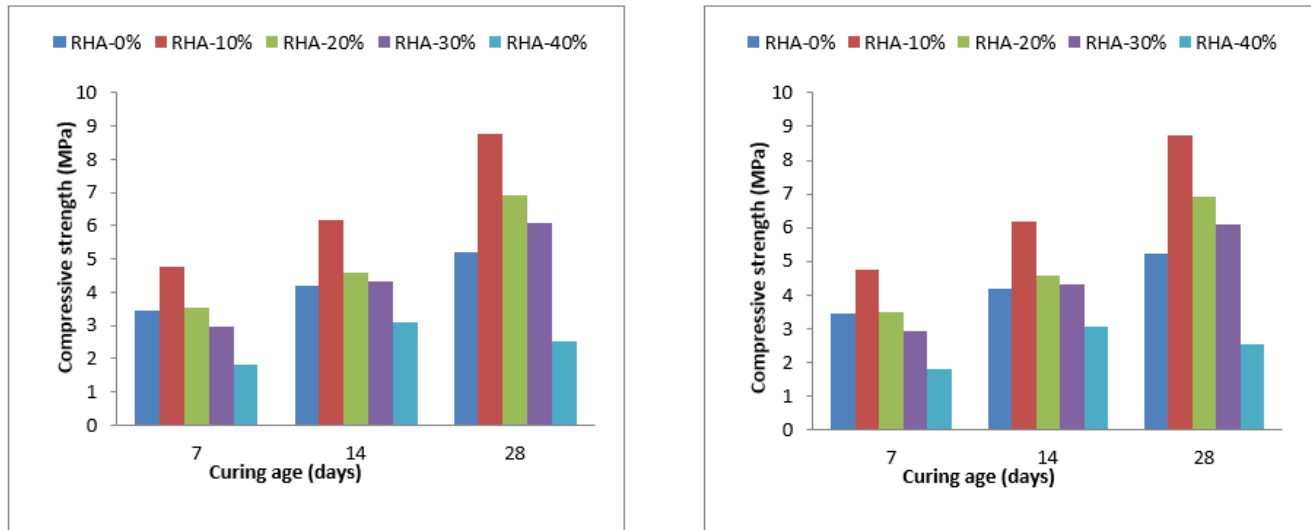


Figure 5. Compressive strength behavior of RHA mortars systems at the 7th, 14th and 28th curing.

At the 28th day curing period, the maximum strength was recorded at 10 %, with result values of 8.759 and 10.252 Mpa for mix ratios 1:2.75 and 1:2.36 respectively. The results were higher than the strength of plain mortar by 68 % and 67.1 %. Hence, the strength results obtained at 10 % and 28 days curing age falls within the specification of ASTM C618 [6] of strength activity index (ASTM C311 [53]) for cement substituting pozzolanic materials. According to ASTM C618 [6], the compressive strength of mix containing partially substituted pozzolanic materials should be 65 % of the corresponding OPC mortar at 28 days. According to ASTM C311 [53], the strength activity index values are mainly calculated to evaluate reactivity of mineral admixtures with the cement.

The pattern of strength development also tallied with findings by Lima et al. [54] and Cavalcante et al. [55]. They studied the influence of silica extracted from RHA on strength development in cementitious mortar. They observed an increment in strength with the addition of 5% and 16% silica. They also associated the improvement in strength to the high fineness and reactivity of RHA in the matrix resulting in the formation of more

cementitious gel (C-S-H), and subsequently decreasing the amount of C-H in the matrix. Gastaldini et al. [56] indicated an increase in compressive strength with RHA; they recorded the maximum strengths at 15 %. Hwang et al. [57] and Isai et al. [18] reported a decrease in compressive strength with RHA addition up to 30 %. Finding by Khan et al. [58] recommended the use of 30% of RHA for optimal compressive strength performance in marble-based cement mortars while Shahas et al. [59] showed that the combination of GGBS and RHA of 70 and 30% inclusion produces mortar of strength higher than plain mortars. The stress strain behaviors of mortars of mix proportions 1:2.75 and 1:2.36 for the various percentages of RHA under compression are presented in Figure 6. Upon application of a compressive loading, the stress-strain values increase exponentially with peak results attained at all replacement levels. For mortars of both mix proportions cured at 7, 14 and 28 days, the maximum stress-strain was achieved at 10% RHA. However, the stress strain results values of mix proportion 1:2.75 was significantly higher than that of 1:2.36 respectively.

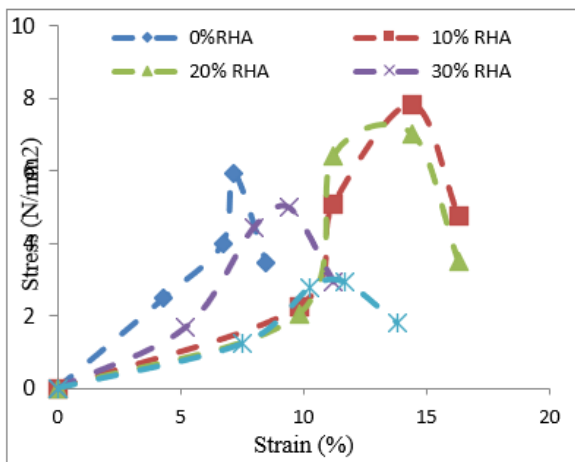


Figure 6. Stress-strain at the 7th day curing age (Mix ratio; 1:2.75)

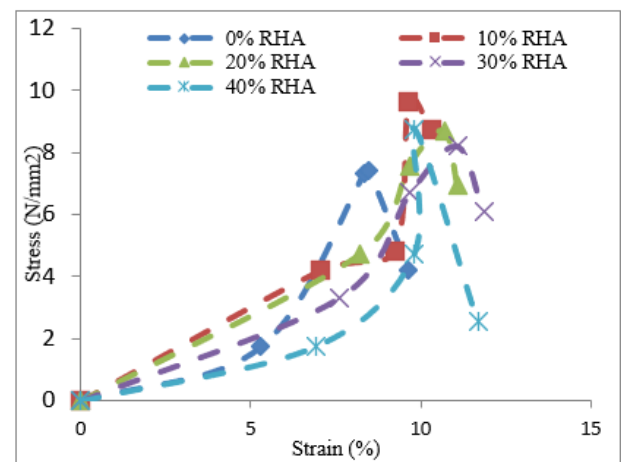


Figure 7. Stress-strain at the 14th day curing age (Mix ratio; 1:2.75)

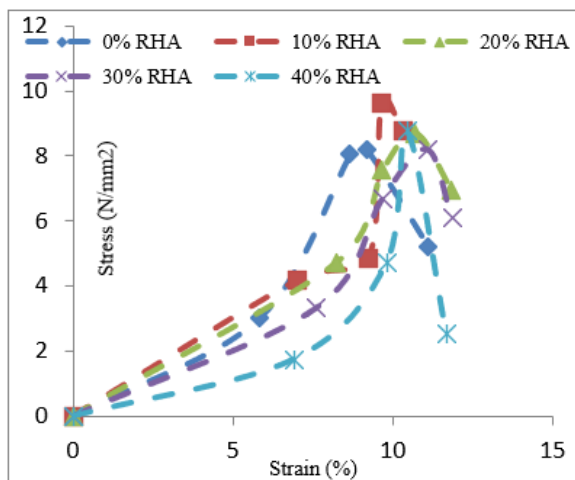


Figure 8. Stress-strain at the 28th day curing age (Mix ratio; 1:2.75)

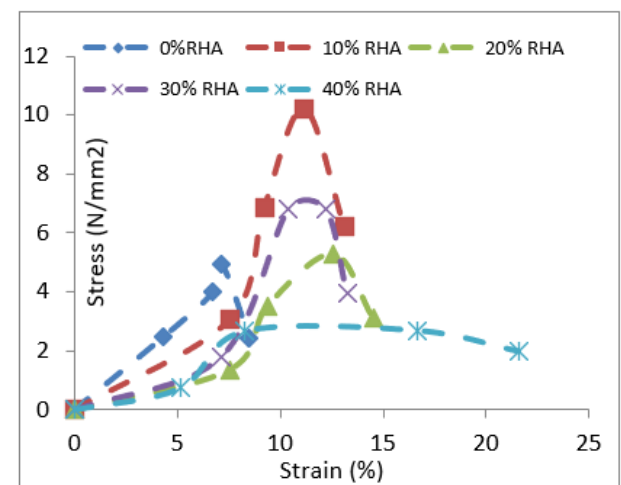


Figure 9. Stress-strain at the 7th day curing age (Mix ratio; 1:2.36)

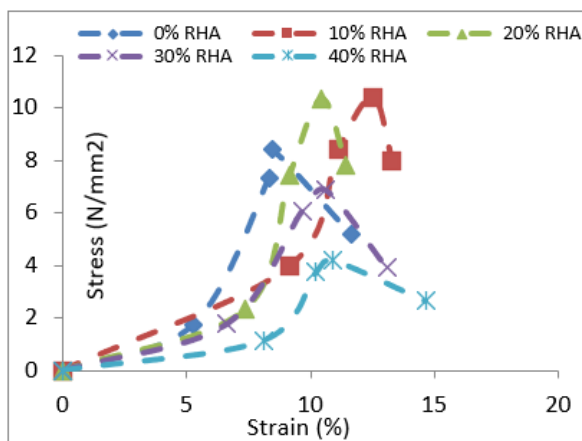


Figure 10. Stress-strain at the 14th day curing age (Mix ratio; 1:2.36)

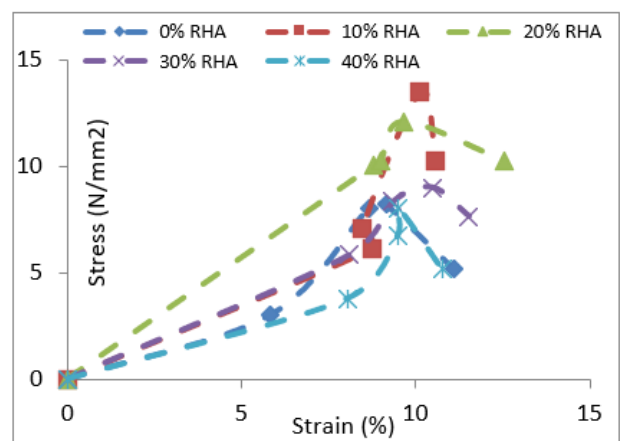


Figure 11. Stress-strain at the 28th day curing age (Mix ratio; 1:2.36)

3.6. Splitting tensile and flexural strength

The flexural and tensile performance of Mortar embedded with RHA was determined with reference to the mix that gave the ultimate compressive strength. Hence, in this case, 10% RHA mortars at a mix ratio 2.36 and curing age of 28 days was

adopted; and the results for both the split tensile and flexural strength are presented in [Table 5](#). Based on the outcome, the flexural strength of the 10% RHA mortars was 22.5 % greater than that of the plain mortar. This result tallied with the findings recorded

by Jamil et al. [27]. However, Habeeb and Fayyadh [60] documented that the size of the RHA plays a significant role in strength development, as a reduction in the size leads to an improvement in mortar strength. Zhang et al. [61] buttressed on Habeeb and Fayyadh [60] findings; the finer RHA

stirs up pozzolanic reaction and acts as fillers. Awash [62] obtained its optimum flexural strength at 20% RHA (Blaine fineness 11200cm²/g). For the split tensile strength, an ultimate strength of 9.245 Mpa was recorded. This was higher than the strength of the plain by 9.6 %.

Table 5. Split tensile and flexural strength of RHA mortars (10% RHA mortars at mix ratio 2.36 and curing age of 28 days)

Test No.	Splitting tensile strength	Flexural strength
1	12.129	4.392
2	11.013	5.318
3	4.591	4.530
Mean	9.245	4.746

However, Khassaf al. [63] also recorded a peak tensile strength 15.4% at 10 % repl. and at 28 days curing. Higher results values greater than plain mortar incorporated with 20 RHA was attained 56 days curing. Furthermore, the outcome of investigations conducted by Le et al. [40] and Foong et al. [64] showed an increase in tensile strength RHA mortar by 17.65 and 28 %, of plain mortar; their peak strengths were obtained at 15 %

replacement. Findings recorded by Talsania et al. [65], Bansal et al. [66] showed an optimal tensile strength at 10% RHA, with their water to binder ratio varying from 0.3-0.45 without the use of SP. Adenuga et al. [67] adopted the use of SP to achieve it optimal water to binder ratio and strength performance at 0.6 and 10 %. Higher optimal RHA repl. of 15 and 20 % were recorded by Ganasan et al. [68], Mahmud et al. [69], Kartini et al. [39].

4. CONCLUSION

The research was conducted to evaluate the effect of RHA on the performance of cement mortars by partially replacing the OPC with RHA at 10%, 20%, 30% and 40%. Prior to the investigation, the RHA was calcined in a blast furnace at a controlled temperature and time of 600°C and 6 hrs, to obtain amorphous silica content. The influence of partially replacing OPC with RHA on the fresh (standard consistency, initial and final setting, and Fresh density (unit weight), yield, and air content (gravimetric) of fresh mortar) and hardened properties (Compressive, tensile and flexural behavior) were investigated with reference to plain cement mortar (0% RHA). Based on the investigation, the main findings are summarized as follows:

1. An increase in standard consistency was recorded with an increase in the amount of RHA. This can probably be attributed to the specific gravity (2.08) and specific surface area (35.98m²/g) of the RHA, which is higher than that of OPC; as a result, more water is required to achieve a standard flow. Also, the initial and final setting times

increased with addition of RHA, with a resultant increment of 6.6%, 14.6% and 26 %. The density of fresh cement mortar was also greater than the blends (10%, 20%, 30% and 40%) for both binder to aggregate mix ratios of 1:2.95 and 1:2.36. For mix ratio 1:2.95, the density decreased by 0.2%, 0.61%, 1.22% and 2.04%. For mix ratio 1:2.36, the density decreased by 0.12%, 0.61%, 1.45 and 2.18%. Hence, it's worthy to note that the inclusion of RHA resulted in a mortar of lighter weight.

2. The maximum compressive was attained at 10%RHA at the 28 day curing age, for both binder to aggregate mix ratio of 1:2.36 and 1:2.95. A result of 8.759 and 10.252, which is greater than the plain mortar by 68% and 67%, was documented. Beyond 10% RHA, a decrease in compressive strength by 8.5%, 13.3% and 19.4% were recorded. The reason for the decrease can possibly associated with agglomeration and improper dispersion of RHA particles, thus delaying the hydration and also resulting in a weaker

hardened mortar. The result of tensile and flexural strength recorded was 9.245 Mpa and 4.746 Mpa at the selected 10%RHA and a binder to aggregate ratio of 1:2.36. The selection was based on the fact that a maximum compressive strength was

achieved at the aforementioned binder to aggregate ratios and cement replacement levels. The results obtained for both tensile and flexural strength was higher than the strength of control mortar by 9.6% and 22.5% respectively.

FUNDING/SUPPORT

Not mentioned any Funding/Support by authors.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Not mentioned by authors.

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author (s) declared no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the authorship and/or publication of this paper.

5. REFERENCES

- [1] Owolabi IO, Ashaolu JT, Twumasi-Ankrah S. The new Nigerian agricultural policy: Efficient for food security. Food Science and Technology. 2016;4(1):1-6. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [2] A.A. Jimoh, O.M. Ameen, J.A. Atolagbe. Determination of optimum burning time and silica composition of rice (*Oryza Sativa*) husk ash and guinea-corn (*sorghum bicolor*) husk ash for pozzolana production, J. of Che. Sci.. Nigeria. 42 (10) (2017) 7-11. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [3] Habeeb GA, Mahmud HB. Study on properties of rice husk ash and its use as cement replacement material. Materials research. 2010;13:185-90. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [4] Rößler C, Bui DD, Ludwig HM. Mesoporous structure and pozzolanic reactivity of rice husk ash in cementitious system. Construction and Building Materials. 2013 Jun 1;43:208-16. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [5] Fapohunda C, Akinbile B, Shittu A. Structure and properties of mortar and concrete with rice husk ash as partial replacement of ordinary Portland cement—A review. International Journal of Sustainable Built Environment. 2017 Dec 1;6(2):675-92. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [6] C618. Standard specification for coal fly ash and raw or calcined natural pozzolana for use in concrete. ASTM International, West Conshohocken. (2022). [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [7] IS1727. Method of test of pozzolanic materials. Indian Standard (1967).
- [8] Bakar BH, JAYA RP, AZIZ HA. Malaysian rice husk ash—improving the durability and corrosion resistance of concrete: Pre-review. InEACEF-International Conference of Civil Engineering 2011 Aug 1 (Vol. 1, pp. 607-612). [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [9] Papadakis VG, Tsimas S. Supplementary cementing materials in concrete: Part I: efficiency and design. Cement and concrete research. 2002 Oct 1;32(10):1525-32. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [10] Givi AN, Rashid SA, Aziz FN, Salleh MA. Contribution of rice husk ash to the properties of mortar and concrete: a review. Journal of American science. 2010 Jun;6(3):157-65. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [11] Villar-Cociña E, Valencia-Morales E, Gonzalez-Rodriguez R, Hernandez-Ruiz J. Kinetics of the pozzolanic reaction between lime and sugar cane straw ash by electrical conductivity measurement: A kinetic-diffusive model. Cement and concrete research. 2003 Apr 1;33(4):517-24. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [12] Kassim KA, Chern KK. Lime stabilized Malaysian cohesive soils. Malaysian Journal of Civil Engineering. 2004;16(1). [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [13] Habeeb GA, Fayyadh MM. Rice husk ash concrete: the effect of RHA average particle size on mechanical properties and drying shrinkage. Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences. 2009 Jul;3(3):1616-22. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [14] Lin RB, Shih SM, Liu CF. Characteristics and reactivities of Ca (OH) 2/silica fume sorbents for low-temperature flue gas desulfurization. Chemical Engineering Science. 2003 Aug 1;58(16):3659-68. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [15] Della VP, Kühn I, Hotza D. Rice husk ash as an alternate source for active silica production. Materials letters. 2002 Dec 1;57(4):818-21. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [16] El-Dakrouy A, Gasser MS. Rice husk ash (RHA) as cement admixture for immobilization of liquid radioactive waste at different temperatures. Journal of nuclear materials. 2008 Nov 15;381(3):271-7. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [17] Feng Q, Yamamichi H, Shoya M, Sugita S. Study on the pozzolanic properties of rice husk ash by hydrochloric acid pretreatment. Cement and concrete research. 2004 Mar 1;34(3):521-6. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [18] Isaia GC, GASTALDINI AL, Moraes R. Physical and pozzolanic action of mineral additions on the mechanical strength of high-performance concrete. Cement and concrete composites. 2003 Jan 1;25(1):69-76. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [19] Berry EE, Hemmings RT, Zhang MH, Cornelius BJ, Golden DM. Hydration in high-volume fly ash concrete binders. Materials Journal. 1994 Jul 1;91(4):382-9. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [20] Cabrera J, Rojas MF. Mechanism of hydration of the metakaolin–lime–water system. Cement and concrete research. 2001 Feb 1;31(2):177-82. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [21] Mayoaran S, Ragavan S, Sathiparan N. Comparative study on open air burnt low-and high-carbon rice husk ash as partial cement replacement in cement block production. Journal of Building Engineering. 2017 Sep 1;13:137-45. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).
- [22] Tuleun LZ, Alao J, John W. Performance of rice husk ash-calcium carbide waste in concrete. Advanced Materials

Research. 2019 Sep 20;1155:41-53. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[23] Ghavami S, Nematpour H, Rajabi M, Mobini MH. Evaluation of the strength characteristics of clayey soils stabilized with rice husk ash and cement. In Proceedings of the 4th Iranian Conference on Geotechnical Engineering, Teheran, Iran 2019 Nov (Vol. 19). [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[24] Barwar A, Chandrappa AK, Sahoo UC. Laboratory investigations on stabilization of weak clay soil using rice husk ash and cement. Innovative Infrastructure Solutions. 2022 Oct;7(5):327. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[25] Sanou I, Sawadogo M, Seynou M, Zerbo L, Ouedraogo R. Study of the mechanical behaviour of mortars modified with rice husk ash. Journal of Minerals and Materials Characterization and Engineering. 2019 Oct 21;7(6):373-84. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[26] Selvaranjan K, Navaratnam S, Gamage JC, Thamboo J, Siddique R, Zhang J, Zhang G. Thermal and environmental impact analysis of rice husk ash-based mortar as insulating wall plaster. Construction and Building Materials. 2021 May 10;283:122744. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[27] Jamil M, Khan MN, Karim MR, Kaish AB, Zain MF. Physical and chemical contributions of Rice Husk Ash on the properties of mortar. Construction and Building Materials. 2016 Dec 15;128:185-98. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[28] Danso H. Effect of rice husk on the mechanical properties of cement-based mortar. Journal of The Institution of Engineers (India): Series D. 2020 Dec;101(2):205-13. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[29] Zakaria N, Ghani KD, Rosli MI, Aziz AA, Jafri N, Kamil MM. Workability and Compressive Strength of Mortar with Addition of Rice Husk Ash (RHA) as Partial Cement Replacement in Engineered Cementitious Composite (ECC). In IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science 2023 (Vol. 1135, No. 1, p. 012052). IOP Publishing. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[30] ASTM C150. (2018). Standard specification for Portland cement. ASTM International, West Conshohocken.

[31] ASTM D6913. (2017). Standard test methods for particle-size distribution (gradation) of soils using sieve analysis. ASTM International, West Conshohocken.

[32] ASTM D4189.. Standard test methods silt density index (SDI) of water. ASTM International, West Conshohocken (2018).

[33] ASTM C187. Standard test methods for time of consistency of hydraulic cement. ASTM International, West Conshohocken (2019).

[34] ASTM C191. Standard test methods for time of setting of hydraulic cement by vicat needle. ASTM International, West Conshohocken (2019).

[35] ASTM C138 . Standard test method for density (unit weight), yield, and air content (gravimetric) of concrete. ASTM International, West Conshohocken (2008).

[36] ASTM. (2015d). Standard Test Method for Compressive Strength of Cylindrical Concrete Specimens C39/C39M – 15a.

[37] ASTM. (2015a). Standard Practice for Making and Curing Concrete Test Specimens in the Field C31/C31M – 15.

[38] ASTM. (2011). Standard Test Method for Splitting Tensile Strength of Cylindrical Concrete Specimens C496/C496M - 11.

[39] Kartini K, Mahmud HB, Hamidah MS. Absorption and permeability performance of Selangor rice husk ash blended grade 30 concrete. Journal of engineering science and technology. 2010;5(1):1-6. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[40] Le HT, Nguyen ST, Ludwig HM. A study on high performance fine-grained concrete containing rice husk ash. International Journal of Concrete Structures and Materials. 2014 Dec;8:301-7. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[41] Rao GA. Investigations on the performance of silica fume-incorporated cement pastes and mortars. Cement and Concrete Research. 2003 Nov 1;33(11):1765-70. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[42] Qing Y, Zenan Z, Deyu K, Rongshen C. Influence of nano-SiO₂ addition on properties of hardened cement paste as compared with silica fume. Construction and building materials. 2007 Mar 1;21(3):539-45. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[43] Khan K, Ullah MF, Shahzada K, Amin MN, Bibi T, Wahab N, Aljaafari A. Effective use of micro-silica extracted from rice husk ash for the production of high-performance and sustainable cement mortar. Construction and Building Materials. 2020 Oct 20;258:119589. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[44] Marthong C. Effect of rice husk ash (RHA) as partial replacement of cement on concrete properties. International Journal of Engineering Research & Technology. 2012;1(6):1-9. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[45] Alshamsi AM, Sabouni AR, Bushlaibi AH. Influence of set-retarding superplasticisers and microsilica on setting times of pastes at various temperatures. Cement and Concrete research. 1993 May 1;23(3):592-8. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[46] Lohtia RP, Joshi RC. Mineral admixtures. In Concrete admixtures handbook 1996 Jan 1 (pp. 657-739). William Andrew Publishing [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[47] Dabai MU, Muhammad C, Bagudo BU, Musa A. Studies on the effect of rice husk ash as cement admixture. Nigerian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences. 2009;17(2):252-6. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[48] Calica Jr MG. Influence of rice husk ash as supplementary material in cement paste and concrete. NLR Journal. 2008;2:80-92. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[49] Rashid MH, Molla MK, Ahmed TU. Durability of mortar in presence of rice husk ash. Pan. 2010;100(41.5):493-5. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[50] Fakhri M. The effect of waste rubber particles and silica fume on the mechanical properties of roller compacted concrete pavement. Journal of cleaner production. 2016 Aug 15;129:521-30. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[51] Pedro D, De Brito J, Evangelista L. Mechanical characterization of high performance concrete prepared with recycled aggregates and silica fume from precast industry. Journal of Cleaner Production. 2017 Oct 15;164:939-49. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[52] Said AM, Zeidan MS, Bassuoni MT, Tian Y. Properties of concrete incorporating nano-silica. Construction and building materials. 2012 Nov 1;36:838-44. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[53] Standard AS. C311-07: Standard Test Methods for Sampling and Testing Fly Ash or Natural Pozzolans for Use in Portland-Cement Concrete. Annu B ASTM Stand. 2007. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[54] Lima SP, Vasconcelos RP, Paiva OA, Cordeiro GC, Chaves MR, Toledo Filho RD, Fairbairn ED. Production of silica gel from residual rice husk ash. Química Nova. 2011;34:71-5. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[55] Cavalcante DG, dos Santos Marques MG, de Almeida Melo Filho J, de Vasconcelos RP. Influence of the levels of replacement of portland cement by metakaolin and silica extracted from rice husk ash in the physical and mechanical characteristics of cement pastes. Cement and Concrete Composites. 2018 Nov 1;94:296-306. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[56] Chindaprasirt P, Jaturapitakkul C, Rattanasak U. Influence of fineness of rice husk ash and additives on the properties of lightweight aggregate. Fuel. 2009 Jan 1;88(1):158-62. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[57] Chao-Lung H, Le Anh-Tuan B, Chun-Tsun C. Effect of rice husk ash on the strength and durability characteristics of concrete. Construction and building materials. 2011 Sep 1;25(9):3768-72. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[58] Khan MA, Khan SA, Khan B, Shahzada K, Althoey F, Deifalla AF. Investigating the feasibility of producing sustainable and compatible binder using marble waste, fly ash, and rice husk ash: A comprehensive research for material characteristics and production. Results in Engineering. 2023 Dec 1;20:101435. [\[View at Google Scholar\]](#); [\[View at Publisher\]](#).

[at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[59] Shahas S, Girija K, Nazeer M. Evaluation of pozzolanic activity of ternary blended supplementary cementitious material with rice husk ash and GGBS. *Materials Today: Proceedings*. 2023 Jan 18. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[60] Habeeb GA, Fayyadh MM. Rice husk ash concrete: the effect of RHA average particle size on mechanical properties and drying shrinkage. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*. 2009 Jul;3(3):1616-22. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[61] Zhang MH, Lastra R, Malhotra VM. Rice-husk ash paste and concrete: some aspects of hydration and the microstructure of the interfacial zone between the aggregate and paste. *Cement and concrete Research*. 1996 Jun 1;26(6):963-77. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[62] Alwash JJ. Use of rice husk ash in cement mortar. *Journal of University of Babylon*. 2013;21(2):582-90. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[63] Khassaf SI, Jasim AT, Mahdi FK. Investigation the properties of concrete containing rice husk ash to reduction the seepage in canals. *International Journal of Scientific Technology Research*. 2014;3(4):348-54. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[64] Foong KY, Alengaram UJ, Jumaat MZ, Mo KH. Enhancement of the mechanical properties of lightweight oil palm

shell concrete using rice husk ash and manufactured sand. *Journal of Zhejiang University SCIENCE A*. 2015;16(1):59-69. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[65] S. Talsania1, J. Pitroda, C.M. Vyas. Effect of rice husk ash on properties of pervious concrete. *Int. J. Adv. Eng. Res. Stud*. 4 (2) (2015) 296– 299. [View at Publisher](#).

[66] Bansal S, Antil Y. Effect of rice husk on compressive strength of concrete. *International journal on emerging Technologies*. 2015 Jan 1;6(1):144. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[67] O.A., Adenuga, A.A. Soyingbe, O.E. Ogunsanmi. The use of rice husk ash as partial replacement for cement in concrete. *Lagos J. Environ. Stud*. 7 (2), (2010) 47–50. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[68] Ganesan K, Rajagopal K, Thangavel K. Rice husk ash blended cement: Assessment of optimal level of replacement for strength and permeability properties of concrete. *Construction and building materials*. 2008 Aug 1;22(8):1675-83. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).

[69] Mahmud HB, Bahri S, Yee YW, Yeap YT. Effect of rice husk ash on strength and durability of high strength high performance concrete. *International Journal of Civil and Environmental Engineering*. 2016 Feb 1;10(3):390-5. [View at Google Scholar](#); [View at Publisher](#).